

REVIEW ARTICLE

***Rhipicephalus rossicus*, a neglected tick at the margin of Europe: a review of its distribution, ecology and medical importance**

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Abstract. *Rhipicephalus rossicus* (Ixodida: Ixodidae) is a three-host tick with a broad host spectrum that includes wild animals, pets, livestock and humans. Despite its local abundance in certain areas, most of the available information on *R. rossicus* was published decades ago, mainly by former soviet authors. Its distribution largely overlaps the Eurasian steppe. However, its range may be more extensive than is currently known because this species may have been misidentified as *Rhipicephalus sanguineus*, principally in areas where the latter species is present. Although *R. rossicus* has been occasionally reported to feed on people, little attention has been given to its medical importance. It has been shown to have a vectorial role in the transmission of *Francisella tularensis*, Crimean–Congo haemorrhagic fever virus and West Nile virus. However, the vectorial importance of *R. rossicus* may be significantly greater, mainly as the closely related species *R. sanguineus* s.l. is known to transmit a very wide spectrum of pathogens. The probably underestimated vectorial role of *R. rossicus* may represent a hidden public health threat.

Key words. *Rhipicephalus rossicus*, Crimean–Congo haemorrhagic fever, seasonal dynamics, tick distribution.

Introduction

Rhipicephalus rossicus Yakimov & Kol-Yakimova, 1911 is a three-host tick with a relatively broad host spectrum that typically inhabits the Eurasian steppe. Despite its local abundance in certain areas, most of the information regarding this tick species was published decades ago, mainly by former soviet authors. Although *R. rossicus* has been reported occasionally as feeding on people, little attention has been given to its medical importance and vectorial role. After comparing the current distribution of *R. rossicus* with 50-year-old records from Ukraine, Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013a) concluded that various human activities, as well as climate change, had 'driven this species deeply into the north' of the country. A breeding population was found as far north as Kiev (Nebogatkin, 1996), where this tick is commonly reported on dogs (Akimov & Nebogatkin, 2002, 2013b).

Arguably, *R. rossicus* is listed by DAISIE (Delivering Alien Invasive Species Inventories for Europe) as an alien species in Europe (Roy *et al.*, 2011). In view of its territorial expansion and urbanization, as well as recent findings that *R. rossicus* may be the dominant tick species to affect pet animals (Dumitrache *et al.*, 2014; Sándor *et al.*, 2014), the aim of this paper is to present a synoptic review of its taxonomic status, host spectrum, geographical distribution, seasonal dynamics and medical importance.

Brief taxonomic overview and notes on key morphological features

Rhipicephalus rossicus is a tick species of the *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* group. It was initially described as found on

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hedgehogs and rats in the governmental district of Saratov, Russia. The immature stages were described by Shatas (1956). Olenev (1928) synonymized it with *R. sanguineus*. Zumpt (1939) considered it to be a subspecies of *R. sanguineus* (*R. sanguineus rossicus*). Currently, it is considered to be a valid species (Kolonin, 2009; Guglielmo *et al.*, 2010). Between 1920 and 1930, various Russian authors divided the *R. sanguineus* group into two different branches: the 'sanguineus branch', and the 'rossicus branch' (Morel & Vassiliades, 1963; Saratsiotis, 1981).

Pomerantzev (1959) considered *R. rossicus* to be morphologically close to *Rhipicephalus pumilio*. This close relationship was also demonstrated genetically by Zahler *et al.* (1997), who performed molecular analysis using ITS2, a conservative marker for the genus *Rhipicephalus*, with low variation between species (Latrofa *et al.*, 2013). This similarity was also highlighted by Beati & Keirans (2001) and suggested conspecificity between the two species. However, other molecular markers (i.e. the mitochondrial 12S of the ribosomal DNA) were demonstrated to be more useful for phylogenetic analyses (Dantas-Torres *et al.*, 2013; Latrofa *et al.*, 2013). Sequences of the 12S rDNA are available for several species of the *R. sanguineus* group (as defined by Walker *et al.*, 2000), including *R. rossicus*. Based on these sequences, we have constructed a phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1) using the maximum parsimony method (Felsenstein, 1985) with the bootstrap test carried out according to the subtree-pruning-grafting (SPR) algorithm (Nei & Kumar, 2000). The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa are clustered together in the bootstrap test (1000 replicates) was calculated. The phylogenetic branches were supported in > 50% by bootstrap analysis. Phylogenetic analyses were conducted using MEGA 6 software (Tamura *et al.*, 2013). The phylogenetic analysis based on the 12S rDNA sequence of *R. rossicus* suggests that it forms a paraphyletic group. However, the close relationship of *R. rossicus* with *R. pumilio*, as demonstrated using ITS2 by Zahler *et al.* (1997), is sustained by 12S rDNA.

Because of its close morphological similarities, *R. rossicus* has probably been misidentified in some reports as *R. sanguineus*, mainly in cases of ticks collected from dogs in areas in which the distribution of these two species overlap (Kolomietz, 1936; Dumitrache *et al.*, 2014).

However, most of the references cited in this paper originate from areas outside the distribution range of *R. sanguineus* and hence the possibilities for misidentification are limited. Nevertheless, we cannot verify or exclude such events because no biological material is available and misidentification as other species (i.e. *Rhipicephalus turanicus* or *R. pumilio*) is also possible.

Host spectrum

The host spectrum of *R. rossicus* is relatively wide (Table 1) and seems to refer to the developmental stage. Overall, *R. rossicus* has been reported to occur on various groups of mammals (rodents, carnivores, ungulates, hedgehogs, shrews, hares, humans), birds (Passeriformes, Galliformes, Falconiformes) and even amphibians. Some host species (shrews, hedgehogs,

rodents and hares) are parasitized by all developmental stages (Shatas & Bystrova, 1954; Emchuk, 1960, 1967), whereas others (humans, larger mammals, including domestic animals) harbour mainly the adults (Shatas & Bystrova, 1954). Domestic hosts reported include cattle, buffaloes, goats, horses, cats and dogs. Because of their abundance, several authors consider hedgehogs and rodents the major hosts for *R. rossicus* (Emchuk, 1960). In rodents and predatory insectivores inhabiting the typical habitats of *R. rossicus*, prevalences of tick infestation may be as high as 80–90% (Shatas & Bystrova, 1954). Despite intensive sample collection during the summer, Kolomietz (1936) failed to find *R. rossicus* on reptiles from Ukraine.

An interesting account of the predilection sites of parasitism in domestic animals was provided by Kolomietz (1936), according to whom the tick, in horses, is found mainly on the inner side of the ear pinna, mane region, tail, chest and inner side of the thighs, whereas in cattle it prefers the ears, udder, perianal region, external sexual organs, chest, neck and flanks. In dogs and cats, ticks were collected mostly from the head and ears, and in pigs *R. rossicus* was found on the ear pinna (Kolomietz, 1936).

Rhipicephalus rossicus is a medium-sized tick, slightly larger than *R. sanguineus* s.l. or other related species (i.e. *R. turanicus*). It has strong legs, a more rounded body and is usually of a reddish brown colour. The capitulum is broader than it is long, the palps are short and broad and the eyes are flat. *Rhipicephalus rossicus* can be differentiated from closely related species (e.g. *R. sanguineus* s.l., *R. turanicus*, *R. pumilio*) by: (a) the shape of the adanal plates in males (Fig. 2A), which are very large, posteriorly broad and have a medial spur; (b) the shape of the spiracular plates in males (Fig. 2B), which are short and have broad tails; (c) similarly shaped spiracular plates in females (Fig. 2D), (d) and the extensively broad U-shaped genital aperture in females (Fig. 2C).

Geographical distribution

The geographical distribution of *R. rossicus* largely overlaps the area covered by the Eurasian steppe (Fig. 3). It has been reported from the countries of Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, China, Dagestan, Egypt, Georgia, Iran, Israel, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, Moldavia, Poland, Romania, Russia, Turkey, Ukraine and Uzbekistan. The limits of its distribution are: 31.3–51.3°N and 23.8–88.1°E. Outside this somewhat compact area of distribution, isolated sites of occurrence include Moscow, Egypt (the Sinai peninsula) and Israel. It is not clear if these isolated reports, which seem to refer to areas outside the species' distribution range, represent misidentifications or accidental occurrences on migrating or introduced hosts.

Seasonal dynamics

Detailed information regarding the seasonality of *R. rossicus* in Ukraine was provided by Emchuk (1960). Larval and nymphal parasitism was recorded from March (early spring) to November (late autumn), with peaks during June–August (summer). Findings of adults on various hosts occurred all year

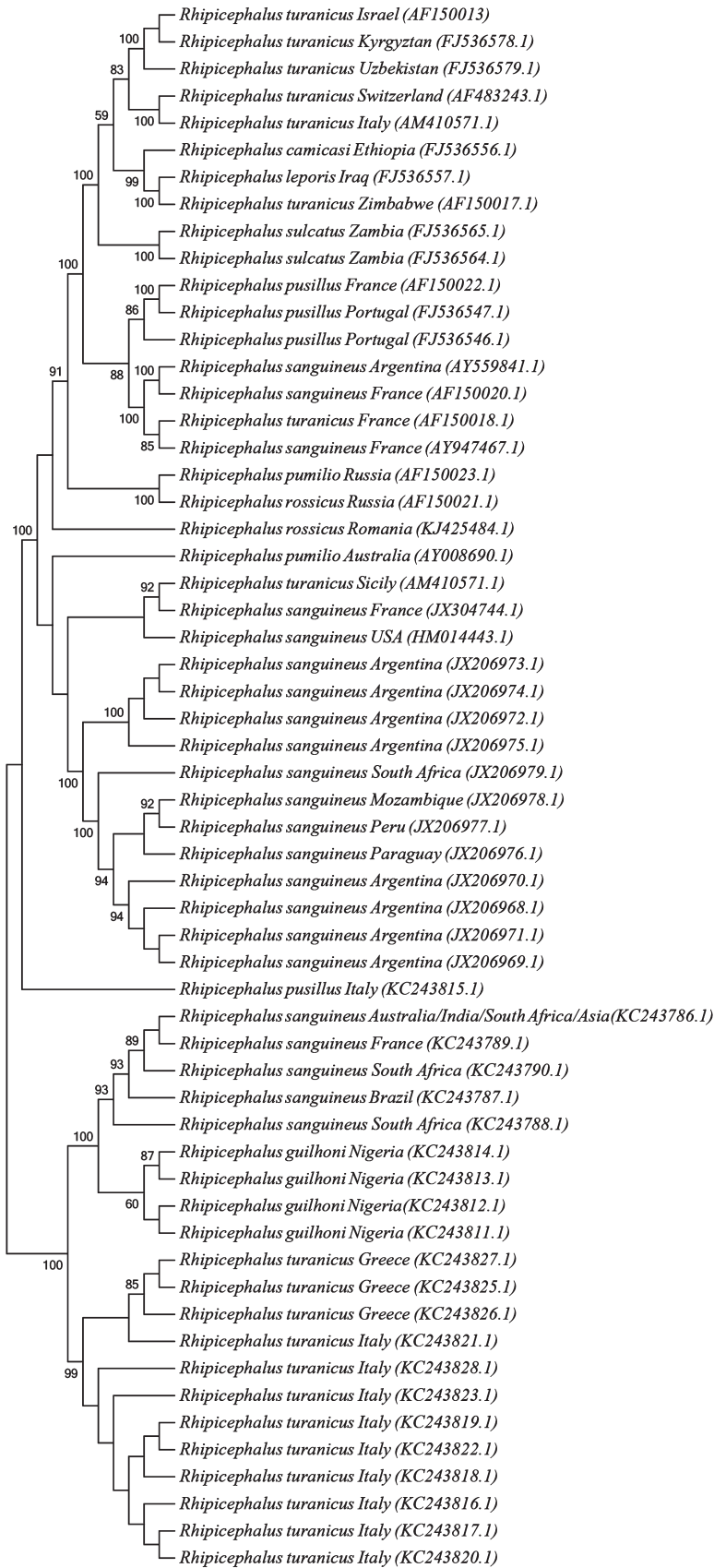


Fig. 1. Phylogenetic analysis based on 12S rDNA of species of the *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* group (*sensu* Walker *et al.*, 2000).

Table 1. Host spectrum and geographical distribution of *Rhipicephalus rossicus*.

Host higher taxa	Host	Stage	Country	Reference
Amphibia				
Ranidae	<i>Rana arvalis</i>	A	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
Reptilia				
Lacertidae	<i>Lacerta agilis</i>	N, L	Former U.S.S.R.	Filippova (1997)
	<i>Lacerta viridis</i>	N, L	Former U.S.S.R.	Filippova (1997)
Aves				
Accipitridae	<i>Circus aeruginosus</i>	?	Azerbaijan	Gusev <i>et al.</i> (1961a)
	<i>Buteo buteo</i>	A	Azerbaijan	Gusev <i>et al.</i> (1962)
Alaudidae	<i>Calandrella rufescens</i>	?	Azerbaijan	Gusev <i>et al.</i> (1961a)
	<i>Galerida cristata</i>	?	Azerbaijan	Gusev <i>et al.</i> (1961a)
Fringillidae	<i>Coccothraustes coccothraustes</i>	?	Azerbaijan	Gusev <i>et al.</i> (1961a)
Emberizidae	<i>Emberiza hortulana</i>	?	Azerbaijan	Gusev <i>et al.</i> (1961a)
Passeridae	<i>Passer montanus</i>	A	Azerbaijan, Ukraine	Gusev <i>et al.</i> (1961b), (1962)
Paridae	<i>Parus major</i>	L	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
Turdidae	<i>Turdus merula</i>	L	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
Corvidae	<i>Pica pica</i>	A	Azerbaijan	Gusev <i>et al.</i> (1962)
	<i>Corvus frugilegus</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
Phasianidae	<i>Coturnix coturnix</i>	?	Azerbaijan	Gusev <i>et al.</i> (1961a)
Unknown birds	?	A	Dagestan, Ukraine	Ter-Vartanov <i>et al.</i> (1954) and Vshivkov (1956)
Mammalia				
Canidae	<i>Canis familiaris</i>	A, N	Kazakhstan, Romania, Russia, Ukraine	Kulikoff (1935), Pomerantzev <i>et al.</i> (1940), Afanas'eva (1960), Emchuk (1960, 1966), Gusev <i>et al.</i> (1961b), Mirzoeva (1961), Keirans (1985), Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b) and Dumitrache <i>et al.</i> (2014)
	<i>Canis aureus</i>	?	Tajikistan	Chernyshev (1954)
	<i>Vulpes vulpes</i>	A, N	Russia, Ukraine	Emchuk (1960, 1966), Mirzoeva (1961), Skliar (1970) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Nyctereutes procyonoides</i>	?	Ukraine	Emchuk (1966)
Felidae	<i>Felis catus</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
Mustelidae	<i>Mustela eversmanii</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Kulikoff (1935), Emchuk (1960, 1966) and Skliar (1970)
	<i>Mustela nivalis</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960)
	<i>Mustela</i> sp.	?	Russia	Mirzoeva (1961)
Sciuridae	<i>Spermophilus suslicus</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960, 1966)
	<i>Spermophilus citellus</i>	?	Romania	Feider (1964)
	<i>Spermophilus pygmaeus</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960)
	<i>Spermophilus</i> sp.	?	Russia	Mirzoeva (1961)
	<i>Marmota bobak</i>	?	Ukraine	Emchuk (1966)
	<i>Marmota marmota</i>	?	Kazakhstan	Afanas'eva (1960)
Muridae	<i>Rattus rattus</i>	?	Ukraine	Emchuk (1966)
	<i>Rattus norvegicus</i>	N	Ukraine	Emchuk (1966), Skliar (1970) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Mus musculus</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960, 1966), Skliar (1970) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Apodemus agrarius</i>	N	Ukraine	Emchuk (1966) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Apodemus sylvaticus</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960, 1966)
	<i>Apodemus flavicollis</i>	A, N, L	Moldavia, Ukraine	Uspenskaia (1987) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Apodemus</i> sp.	?	Ukraine	Skliar (1970)
	<i>Mycromys minutus</i>	N	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Meriones tamariscinus</i>	?	Kazakhstan	Afanas'eva (1960)
	<i>Rhombomys opimus</i>	A, N	Iran	Filippova <i>et al.</i> (1976)
Cricetidae	<i>Myodes glareolus</i>	N	Ukraine	Emchuk (1966) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Cricetus cricetus</i>	A, N, L	Russia, Ukraine	Emchuk (1960, 1966), Philippova & Panova (1983) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)

Table 1. Continued

Host higher taxa	Host	Stage	Country	Reference
	<i>Cricetulus migratorius</i>	A, N, L	Kazakhstan, Ukraine	Afanas'eva (1960), Emchuk (1960, 1966) and Skliar (1970)
	<i>Microtus arvalis</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960, 1966), Skliar (1970) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Microtus socialis</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960)
	<i>Microtus oeconomus</i>	N	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Microtus subterraneus</i>	N	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Ondatra zibethicus</i>	N, L	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Arvicola terrestris</i>	N	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
Dipodidae	<i>Sicista subtilis</i>	N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960)
	<i>Jaculus jaculus</i>	A, N	Ukraine?	Emchuk (1960)
Erinaceidae	<i>Erinaceus concolor</i>	A, L	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Erinaceus roumanicus</i>	A, N, L	Moldavia, Romania, Russia, Ukraine	Emchuk (1960, 1966), Mirzoeva (1961), Feider (1964), Butenko <i>et al.</i> (1971), Uspenskaia (1987) and Mihalca <i>et al.</i> (2012)
	<i>Hemiechinus auritus</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960)
Soricidae	<i>Sorex araneus</i>	N	Ukraine	Emchuk (1966) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Sorex minutus</i>	N	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Crocidura suaveolens</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
Leporidae	<i>Oryctolagus cuniculus</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960)
	<i>Lepus europaeus</i>	A, N	Azerbaijan, Ukraine	Emchuk (1960, 1966) and Abusalimov (1965)
	<i>Lepus</i> sp.	?	Russia	Mirzoeva (1961)
	Unknown	?	Ukraine	Kulikoff (1935)
Ochotonidae	<i>Ochotona dauurica</i>	A, N	Turkmenistan	Berdyev (1980)
Bovidae	<i>Bos taurus</i>	A, N	Moldavia, Poland, Russia, Ukraine, Uzbekistan	Pomerantzev <i>et al.</i> (1940), Emchuk (1960), Mirzoeva (1961), Dutkiewicz & Siuda (1969), Butenko <i>et al.</i> (1971), Uspenskaia (1987), Rasulov (2007) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
	<i>Bubalus bubalis</i>	A	Russia	Pomerantzev <i>et al.</i> (1940)
	<i>Capra hircus</i>	A, N	Egypt, Ukraine	Emchuk (1960) and Feldman-Muhsam (1960)
Cervidae	<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	A, N	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960)
	<i>Capreolus capreolus</i>	A	Ukraine	Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
Suidae	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	A, N, L	Ukraine	Emchuk (1960)
Camelidae	<i>Camelus bactrianus</i>	A	Ukraine?	Emchuk (1960) and Akimov & Nebogatkin (2013b)
Equidae	<i>Equus caballus</i>	A	Russia, Ukraine	Pomerantzev <i>et al.</i> (1940) and Emchuk (1960)
Hominidae	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	A	Ukraine, Moldavia, Romania, Russia	Kulikoff (1935), Shatas & Bystrova (1954), Feider (1965) and Uspenskaia (1987)
Unknown	?	?	Armenia, Bulgaria, Georgia, China, Israel, Turkey, Russia	Pomerantzev (1946), Feldman-Muhsam (1960), Neronov (1974), Keirans (1985) and Chen <i>et al.</i> (2010)

A, adult; L, larva; N, nymph.

round, peaking from April (mid-spring) to July (mid-summer) (Emchuk, 1960). According to Pomerantzev *et al.* (1940), adults are active from April (mid-spring) to September (early autumn). Gusev *et al.* (1962) collected adults from birds in the Kura-Araksinsky lowlands, Azerbaijan in April (mid-spring), June (mid-summer) and November (late autumn). Several authors have reported the maximum peak of activity to occur in June and July (summer) (Shatas, 1956) or May–August (Kolomietz, 1936). Dumitrache *et al.* (2014) found *R. rossicus* on dogs in southeastern Romania from April (spring) to August (summer), with a significant peak in occurrence during May–July. Feider (1965) and Coipan *et al.* (2011) reported

adults on rodents and hedgehogs in Romania during May–July, and larvae and nymphs only in July.

Ecology

Shatas (1956) stated that the typical habitats of *R. rossicus* were 'bottomland valleys and foothill biotopes' and that ticks avoid 'dry habitats'. This preference for river basin valleys was attributed by Shatas & Bystrova (1954) mainly to the richness of available hosts and climate. Emchuk (1967) and Brovko (1969) listed *R. rossicus* as one of the dominant species in dry artificial

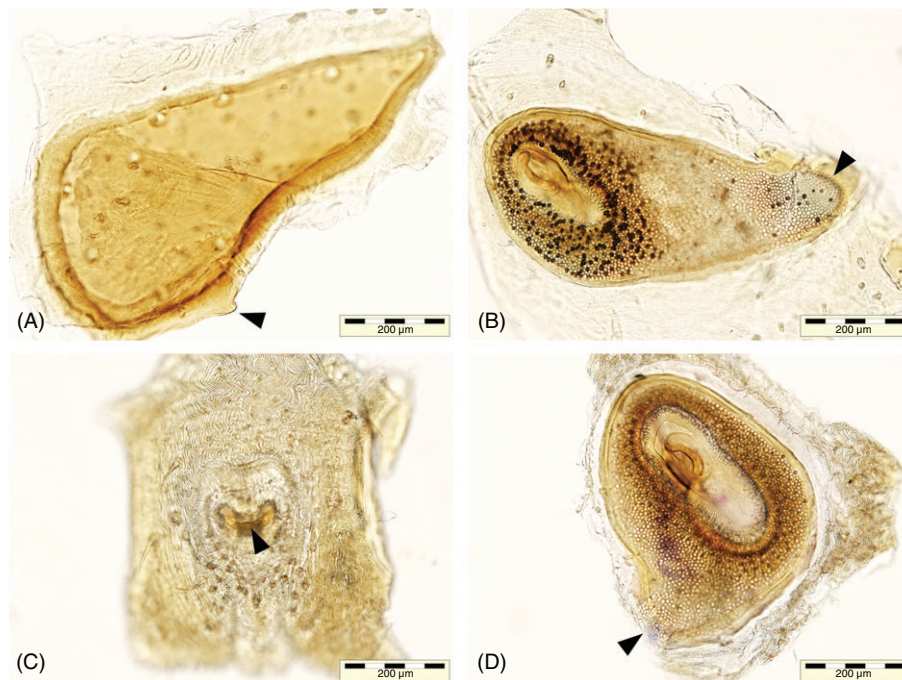


Fig. 2. Key morphological features of *Rhipicephalus rossicus*. (A) Adanal plates in males. The arrowhead shows the medial spur. (B) Spiracular plates in males. The arrowhead shows the broad aspect of the tail. (C) Genital aperture in females. The extensively broad U-shape is evident (arrowhead). (D) Spiracular plates in females. The arrowhead shows the broad aspect of the tail.

forests in the steppe zones of southern Ukraine. In Ukraine, the tick is also present in mixed cereal grassland steppe biotopes (Emchuk, 1967). In Transcaucasia, *R. rossicus* was found at altitudes of 40–1112 m a.s.l., in areas with wormwood and grass, lowland liana forests of eastern type, central mountain belts with oak dominance and mountain steppes (Pomerantzev *et al.*, 1940). In the former U.S.S.R. and Romania, *R. rossicus* was found at altitudes of 0–500 m a.s.l. (Feider, 1965). In Bulgaria, Drenski (1955) collected it at 1500 m a.s.l. Kulikoff (1935) found this tick in grasslands, gardens and parks, acacia forests and raspberry bushes.

In a study on the diversity and abundance of ticks from Prikaspiye (in the former U.S.S.R.), *R. rossicus* was listed (together with nine other species) amongst the dominant ticks out of 46 species and subspecies found (Ganiyev, 1966).

With regard to dog parasitism, the most interesting occurrences are those in regions in which *R. rossicus* is sympatric with *R. sanguineus* (Fig. 3). In certain localities in these areas of co-occurrence, *R. rossicus* replaced *R. sanguineus* and was reported to be the dominant tick in dogs, mainly in the summer months (Dumitrache *et al.*, 2014). In other localities, *R. sanguineus* and *R. rossicus* occurred on dogs with comparable frequencies (Sándor *et al.*, 2014). This rather remarkable interspecific competition success of *R. rossicus* over other tick species was also recorded in the past. Following the cold winter of 1968–1969 in Rostov Oblast (Russia), the density of the *R. rossicus* population increased three-fold in 1 year, and this species replaced *Hyalomma marginatum* (Ixodida: Ixodidae) as the tick most commonly found on cattle (Badalov *et al.*, 1971). This was attributed to the increased overwinter survival

of *R. rossicus* in comparison with *H. marginatum* (Hoogstraal, 1979). Moreover, it has been suggested that *R. rossicus* can also replace *H. marginatum* in its role as an epidemiological vector (Hoogstraal, 1979).

Lifecycle

Little is known about the lifecycle of *R. rossicus*. It is a three-host tick, with a natural lifecycle of 2–3 years (Emchuk, 1967; Walker *et al.*, 2000). The relatively long duration of the lifecycle is attributed to the seasonal autonomy of all stages (Belozarov, 1976). The lifecycle was described under laboratory conditions by Kolomietz (1936). Fully engorged females collected from hedgehogs, horses and cattle laid eggs after 5–11 days. Numbers of eggs varied from 200 to 6800 and were correlated with the weight of the females. Larvae hatched from the eggs in 23–26 days. Larvae were experimentally fed on hedgehogs, cats, guinea pigs, dogs and horses. The duration of larval feeding was 1–2 days (Kolomietz, 1936). Pogorelyi (1966) fed larvae using laboratory rabbits and reported the full engorgement and detachment of larvae within 3–5 days. Larvae moulted to nymphs in 8–11 days. The feeding duration of nymphs on experimental animals was 3–4 days. The second moult (nymphs to adults) occurred in 15–20 days. Adults fed on animals for 7–9 days. The total duration of the lifecycle of *R. rossicus* under laboratory conditions was 77–108 days (Kolomietz, 1936). However, Kolomietz (1936) did not provide any information on the temperature and humidity used in his experimental work.

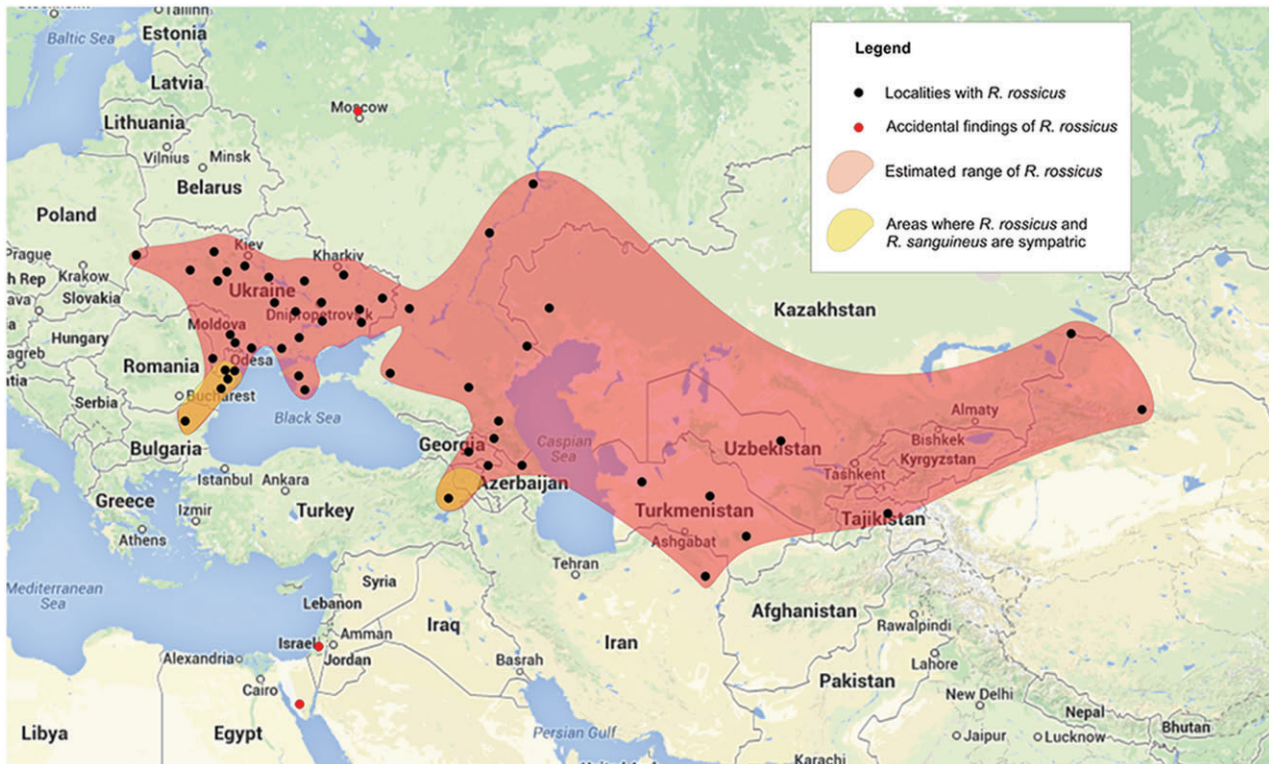


Fig. 3. Distribution range of *Rhipicephalus rossicus*.

Medical importance

The vectorial capacity of *R. rossicus* has been investigated for only a few pathogens. To date, this species has been shown to have vectorial competence for *Francisella tularensis*, Crimean–Congo haemorrhagic fever (CCHF) virus and West Nile virus (WNV). Other pathogens have been occasionally detected in *R. rossicus*, but its vectorial competence for them has not been demonstrated.

Tularaemia

Rhipicephalus rossicus is considered to be among the most important vectors for tularaemia in steppe zones and floodplain valleys of the former U.S.S.R. (Shatas & Bystrova, 1954; Emchuk, 1967). Detections of *F. tularensis* in *R. rossicus* were reported in the Krasnodar region (Strikhanova *et al.*, 1965), Volgograd Oblast (Borodin *et al.*, 1965), Transcaucasia (Armenia), Azerbaijan, the plains of Central Asia and southern Kazakhstan (Neronov, 1974). The reported prevalence of *F. tularensis* in *R. rossicus* was as low as 1.4% (Balashov, 1987).

The first experimental evidence of the vectorial capacity of *R. rossicus* for *F. tularensis* was provided by Shatas & Bystrova (1954). They showed that *R. rossicus* is able to transmit the agent of tularaemia by trans-stadial passage. To date, there is no experimental evidence to indicate the possibility of transovarial transmission of *F. tularensis* by *R. rossicus*. Interestingly, none of the adult ticks infected with *F. tularensis* survived the

experimental overwintering, whereas 70% of uninfected control ticks did (Shatas & Bystrova, 1954). This observation might be important if the hypothesis that *F. tularensis* is able to reduce the natural survival of infected ticks is correct.

The significant medical importance of *R. rossicus* as a vector for *F. tularensis* is also related to reservoir hosts which commonly harbour all developmental stages of the tick. Moreover, adult *R. rossicus* can occasionally feed on humans (Shatas & Bystrova, 1954). Olsufev *et al.* (1963) used the absence of *F. tularensis* in *R. rossicus* and *Dermacentor marginatus* (Ixodida: Ixodidae) collected from cattle as proof of the beneficial impact of the Volgograd hydroelectric power station, which they attributed to the reduction in population density of one of the principal reservoir hosts, *Arvicola terrestris*. Borodin *et al.* (1958) reported two human cases of allergic reactions after bites of *R. rossicus* infected with *F. tularensis*. The allergic reaction occurred in subjects vaccinated against tularaemia.

Crimean–Congo haemorrhagic fever virus

The first isolation of CCHF virus from *R. rossicus* was performed by Chumakov (1969) in ticks collected from cattle and sheep. The principal natural reservoirs of CCHF virus (e.g. hedgehogs, hares, ground squirrels) are also important hosts for *R. rossicus*. Hence, the epidemiological role of this tick in the natural cycle of CCHF virus may be significant (Hoogstraal, 1979). Kondratenko (1976) showed the oral vector competence of *R. rossicus* for CCHF virus and proved its

vertical transmission. The virus was found in *R. rossicus* collected from cattle and *Erinaceus roumanicus* hedgehogs in Rostov region, western Russia (Casals *et al.*, 1970; Kondratenko *et al.*, 1970; Rabinovich *et al.*, 1970). However, the infection was not detected in *R. rossicus* collected from infected *Hemiechinus auritus* hedgehogs (Hoogstraal, 1979). Butenko *et al.* (1971) isolated the virus from engorged *R. rossicus* males parasitic on cattle in Severskiy District (Krasnodar Krai, Russia) and from engorged females collected from hedgehogs in Belaya Kalitva (Belokalitvinsky District, Rostov Oblast, Russia). Badalov *et al.* (1971) found infection with CCHF virus in *R. rossicus* to originate from *Lepus europaeus*.

West Nile virus

Although no natural infections with WNV were reported in *R. rossicus*, immature stages of *R. rossicus* were experimentally shown to receive, preserve and trans-stadially maintain the virus (Kotel'nikova & Kondrashova, 1974). Moreover, experimentally infected females were able to transmit the infection to larval offspring via the transovarial route (Kotel'nikova & Kondrashova, 1974; Kotel'nikova, 1978). However, so far there is no evidence that *R. rossicus* is involved in the natural transmission cycle of WNV.

Other pathogens

Other pathogens have been sporadically reported from *R. rossicus*, but no further evidence of a vectorial role has been provided. Hence, these associations should be treated cautiously. In 1935, during a mass outbreak of equine theileriosis in Ukraine, horses were found to be massively infested with one single species of tick, namely *R. rossicus* (Kolomietz, 1936). This seems to be the first circumstantial evidence for the possible vectorial role of *R. rossicus* for *Theileria equi*. Kapustin (1955) also reported *R. rossicus* as a vector for *T. equi* and also *Babesia bigemina*. However, no experimental or other types of proof were provided. Hoogstraal (1979) mentioned the association of *R. rossicus* with *Coxiella burnetii*, but provided no reference.

Conclusions

Rhipicephalus rossicus, a species with apparently low host specificity and a distribution range largely overlapping the Eurasian steppe, is a neglected tick. Its distribution range may be more extensive than is currently known as a result of its possible misidentification as *R. sanguineus* because the two species may be difficult to distinguish during routine morphological examination. This situation is particularly likely in the case of ticks collected from dogs in areas where the two tick species are sympatric or where *R. sanguineus s.l.* is typically considered to be the only representative of the genus parasitic in canids.

We consider that the vectorial importance of *R. rossicus* may be significantly higher than is currently recognized, mainly because the closely related species *R. sanguineus s.l.* is known

to transmit a very wide spectrum of pathogens. It would be particularly interesting to evaluate this hypothesis in areas in which the two species of tick are sympatric or even co-feed on the same host individuals. The probably underestimated vectorial role of *R. rossicus* may represent a hidden public health threat as this tick is occasionally reported to feed on humans.

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